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TEACHER BEHAVIORS AND SELF-CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

by

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken in order to identify naturally-occurring teacher behaviors that have the potential to influence the self-concept development of children in kindergarten and grade one.

Attention was focussed on teacher behaviors that could communicate to a child something about himself, thereby having the potential to influence his self-concept development. Naturalistic observation of four teachers in action revealed thirty-two kinds of teacher behaviors judged to have the potential to affect the development of a child's self-concept. Most behaviors were grouped into three categories according to the apparent intent of the teacher. A fourth category included behaviors that were idiosyncratic.

The first category of behaviors was labelled controlling. Controlling behaviors were defined as those that are used to aid in classroom management and control. Included in this category are descriptors such as disciplining, excluding, and policing.

Motivating behaviors made up the second category. These behaviors included descriptors such as praising, rejecting, and reducing stress and were expressed for the apparent purpose of giving the children encouragement or incentive to do their work or to better their work.

The third category consisted of those behaviors that communicated to the children that they were worthy and acceptable and therefore were labelled positive feedback. Some descriptors included in this grouping were acting convivial, praising, and empathizing.

Idiosyncratic behaviors were those that were exhibited without apparent conscious intention or thought, but were more reflective of the teacher's personality. These included descriptors of behaviors such as joking, acting courteously, and acting defensively.

The report of the study concludes with a list of four hypotheses which were based on the findings and put forward as suggestions for further research. The concluding hypotheses are:

1. All teacher behaviors that directly affect the group or classroom climate have potential to indirectly affect the child's self-concept development.

2. The intent of the behavior is an important variable in determining the effect of teacher behaviors on the child's self-concept development.

3. Teacher behavior, whether it has a direct or an indirect intention, has the potential for affecting the child's self-concept development.

4. Some teacher behaviors appear to be expressed without conscious thought or intent.

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I am part of all that I have met
Yet all experience is an arch where through
Gleams that untraveled world whose margin fades
Forever and forever when I move.

Tennyson, Ulysses

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER

PAGE

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY 1

Background to the Problem 1

Purpose of the Study 3

Definition of Terms 3

Significance of the Study 4

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 6

Self as Central to Organism 6

Self as Reflected Appraisal 6

Language in the development of self-as-object . . 8

Self-Perception and Behavior 9

Development of self-perception 10

Self as Resistant to Change 11

The paradox of self-concept development 13

Self as Many Selves 13

Self-Esteem as Part of Self-Concept 14

Self-Concept as a Learned Construct 15

Development of self-awareness 15

Self-identity and memory 16

Concept of Self as it Affects Perception of Others. 16

Self-Concept Development in the School Setting . . 16

Self in the Role of Student 17

CHAPTER PAGE

Self-concept and school achievement 18

Teachers as significant others 19

Self-fulfilling prophecy 19

Summary 20

III. THE DESIGN OF STUDY 22

Methodology 22

The Participants 23

Pilot Study 23

Procedures for Collecting a Data Base 24

The Setting 27

The Teachers' Reaction to the Data Collection . . . 28

Data Analysis 29

IV. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS 31

Preliminary Data Analysis 31

Phase II Data Analysis and Findings 32

Non-verbal behaviors 34

Physical characteristics 54

Phase III Data Analysis and Findings 55

Phase IV Data Analysis and Findings 56

Summary 62

CHAPTER PAGE

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS 64

Summary 64

Conclusions 66

Hypotheses 66

Speculations 68

BIBLIOGRAPHY 71

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Description	Page
I	Teacher Behaviors Occuring in Kindergarten and Grade One	35
II	Verbal and Non-Verbal Behaviors in Each of the Descriptors	37
III	Umbrella Categories	58

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Cyclical Properties of Behavior, Self-Perception and Self-Concept	9
2.	A Model of Teacher's Classroom Behaviors that Have Potential to Affect the Child's Self-Concept	61

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background to the Problem

"I think therefore I am." Descarte's dictum suggests the basis for self-concept theories. Everyone has a self-concept; an idea of what he* is as a person. This concept of self is learned through an individual's interactions with his environment. Much of what he learns about himself is determined by the way others react towards him. His self-perceptions, in turn, can affect how he will behave. Self-concept is determined by all the forces acting upon the individual as well as being a force itself (Gordon, 1972).

An individual's concept of self begins early in life and is continually being modified by subsequent experiences. Early childhood years are critical in the development of self-concept (Purkey, 1970; Dinkmeyer, 1965; Yamamoto, 1972). These are the years when the self-concept is first being formed and is still malleable. Since the reactions of others toward the child are instrumental in self-concept development, knowledge of self-concept development and how this development can be affected should be a prime concern of all who interact with young children.

Although parents are the first and foremost influence in determining how the child will think about himself, later, teachers

*Because the English language does not have a nonsexist pronoun for male/female, the convention of using he and she interchangeably was chosen.

and peers become important as significant others. By the time a child reaches school age, he already has some feeling about his worth and value as a social being in relation to his family and home environment. However, since he has not yet experienced schooling, he has only, at best, a vague concept of himself as a student. How he feels about himself in the role of pupil is influenced by his perceptions of how the teacher feels about him. When the child perceives the teacher's attitude towards him as favorable, he will in turn have a positive image of himself.

Research indicates that self-concept is significantly related to academic achievement in school (Purkey, 1970). Brophy and Good (1974) suggest that children that feel good about themselves and their abilities are more open to new experiences and as a result are higher achievers. The teacher's attitudes towards a student are closely related to her expectations of that student. Consequently, the teacher's attitudes and expectations of the student can affect how he sees himself and how he behaves in that role. For this reason, each teacher has the potential for profoundly influencing the self concepts of the children in her care.

In summary, the self-concept theories present certain assumptions upon which this study is based.

1. Self-concept is learned through social interactions.
2. Initial experiences in new circumstances are important for developing the self-concept related to those circumstances.
3. The teacher is an influence in the child's life.
4. Self-concept is related to school achievement.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe naturally occurring teacher behaviors which, in the light of self-concept theory, could be assumed to have the potential to affect the self-concepts of young children in the classroom. It was not intended that the study be evaluative; the observer made no attempt to judge the relative effects of the teacher behaviors being documented. The interest was not in the actual effect but rather in the potential to affect the children.

Definition of Terms

The literature on self-concept includes various terms relating to the global self-concept. Because these may be ambigious to the reader, the terms, as they are used in this study, are defined below.

self-concept: An individual's perceptions, beliefs, values, and feelings which he views to be true about himself. LaBenne and Green (1969) define self-concept as ". . . the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behavior" (p.10).

self-awareness: the awareness of one's individual existence, separate from others.

self-image: how one sees one's physical self.

self-esteem: the value judgement one places on one's self according to one's own values and standards.

self-acceptance: the acceptance of one's self; realizing one's capabilities and accepting them.

self-perception: how a person sees himself in relation to how he thinks others see him.

self-feelings: the feelings that one has about one's self.

self-identity: how an individual sees himself; uniquely different yet similar to some or all others.

self-fulfilling prophecy: the notion that the beliefs a person holds regarding himself may influence his behavior such that these beliefs or prophecies are fulfilled.

selves: the many different concepts of one's self. Example: the physical self, social self, spiritual self, or the self as a learner, self as a musician, etc.

ideal self: an individual's concept of what he would like to be.

real self: what an individual actually perceives he is.

significant other: ". . . an individual selected and unconditionally valued by the developing self as a source of self-reflection" (Kash and Borich, 1978, p. 12).

Significance of the Study

The school is second only to the home in shaping self-concept and teachers, as significant others, have a direct influence in that shaping (LaBenne and Greene, 1969). Although the specific impact of teacher behaviors on self-concept development is as yet unknown, what is known is that self-concept is learned. It is safe to assume that the teacher plays some role in this aspect of learning.

What is not available in the research literature at this point, is a full picture of the kinds of naturally-occurring teacher behaviors which could affect the child's self-concept. Research concerning the impact of teacher behaviors on pupil self-concept has

been hampered by the absence of such a picture. Before further meaningful research in this area can be carried out, an inventory of teacher behaviors is necessary.

Teachers should be aware that their behavior can affect the self-concept of the children they teach. Awareness of factors influencing the affective domain needs to be viewed as at least as important as awareness of factors which affect the cognitive domain. Moustakas (1966) in The Authentic Teacher, says:

> We all make mistakes. But to commit a wrong, to lower the dignity of a child and not be aware that the dignity has been impaired, is much more serious than the child's skipping of words during oral reading. (p. 4)

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter, theories of self-concept and self-concept development are outlined in detail. A theoretical framework was considered necessary as a backdrop for the collection and analysis of data and as a basis for certain assumptions made in this study. A representative sample of theorists is presented.

The development of the child's self-concept in the role of learner is also discussed in the light of the school environment.

William James, one of the earliest theorists to look at the science of human behavior, described the self as the sum total of all that a person can call his (Jersild, 1952). Though very broad, this definition presents a basic foundation on which to examine the many characteristics of self-concept that have been defined by theorists.

Self as Central to the Organism

The self is the central aspect of the organism (Rogers, 1956; Snygg and Combs, 1959; Jersild, 1952). The beliefs, values and attitudes that each individual views to be true about himself comprise the self-concept. One's perception of the inner being or core of oneself is one's concept of self.

Self as Reflected Appraisal

Mead, in common with James, Cooley, Horney, and others (cited in Samuels, 1977) define self-as-object. They maintain that an

individual, in seeing himself as he thinks others see him, regards himself as an object. Thus, the self has a reflective quality. One's perception of one's self is a reflection of how one thinks others see oneself. These reflected appraisals, in turn, become the concept-of-self.

According to Mead (1948) the self is divided into two parts: the "I" which is the subjective self and the "ME" which is the objective self. The subjective self can stand back and look at the objective self because the "ME" becomes an object to the "I".

While the self-as-object notion appears to be generally accepted, another dimension of self appears in Freud's writings. He defines self-as-process (Dinkmeyer, 1965). This process is comprised of three major systems: the ego, the id, and the superego. The ego is the agent that makes rational choices. It decides what instincts to satisfy, while the id is the impulsive force and the superego is the moral force or conscience. The ego acts as a mediator between the id and superego. Freud's system seems to be similar to Mead's "I" and "ME". The "I" in Mead's theory is the impulsive side of self whereas the "ME" represents the control aspect of self.

> The "I" being spontaneous and impulsive, offers the potentiality for new creative activity. The "ME", being regulatory, disposes the individual to both goal-directed activity and conformity. In the operation of these aspects of the self, we have the basis for, on the one hand, social control and, on the other, novelty and innovation. We are thus provided

> with a basis for understanding the mutuality of the relationship between the individual and society.
>
> (Meltzer, 1968, p. 12)

However, Meltzer (1968) views Freud's id, ego, and superego as constantly being in combat with each other while Mead's "I" and "ME" work harmoniously together.

The self-as-object and the self-as-process are combined in Kash and Borich's (1978) writings. They suggest that psychological processes such as thinking, remembering, and perceiving are the self-as-process. Self-as-doer represents the physical actions. One's thoughts and feelings about oneself make up the self-as-object. They summarize this notion by stating:

> The self-as-doer participates in a relationship; the self-as-process experiences the relationship; and the perceptions of the self-as-doer and the feelings of the self-as-process become attitudes and beliefs about the self-as-object. (p. 20)

Language in the development of self-as-object. Mead (1948) and others stress the acquisition of symbolic communication as vital to the development of self-concept. Through the use of language, the individual can carry on conversations not only with others but also with himself. This inner conversation is simply the process of thinking. During this process the individual responds to himself and thereby is an object to himself. He learns to define himself in increasingly precise terms through the use of language. Experiences become verbalized, allowing the person to see himself in the same terms as others see him. Thus an individual can be more specific

about himself and his feelings. As language develops, the realization of oneself as an object becomes possible.

Self-Perception and Behavior

Self-perception is selective and determined by past experiences. ". . . we evaluate the world and its meaning in terms of how we see ourselves" (Purkey, 1970, p. 10). Perceptions of a situation are influenced by self-perceptions, which in turn influence behavior. Rogers concurs with this notion stating that "experience is perceived in terms of its relevance to the self and . . . behavior is determined by these perceptions" (Purkey, 1970, p. 10). Brookover, Thomas and Patterson present a model to represent the cyclical properties of behavior, self-perception, and self-concept:

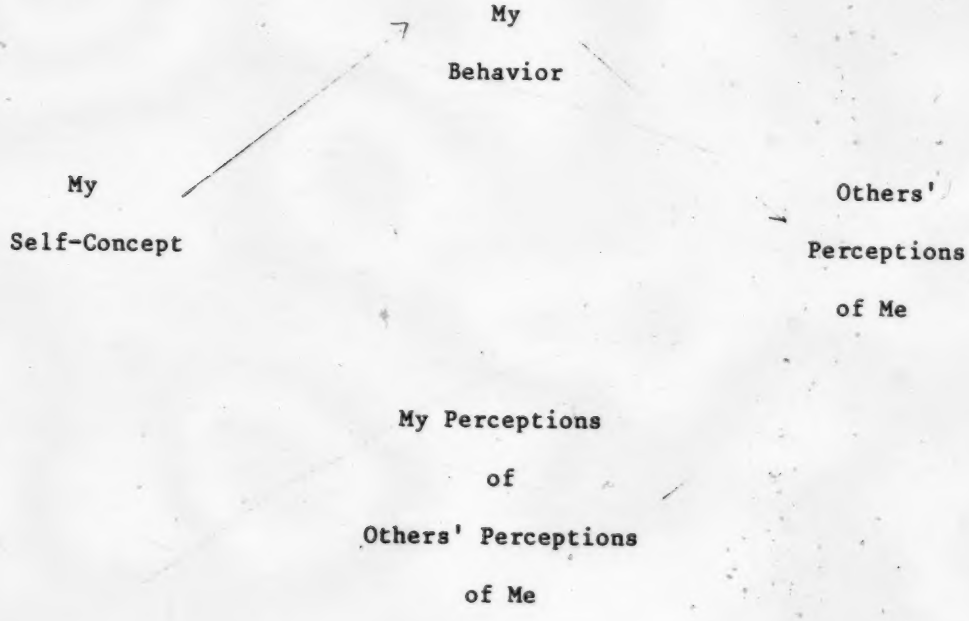

Figure 1. This cause-effect model, moving clockwise, begins with "Others' Perceptions of Me." (Oswald, 1976, p. 16)

Development of self-perception. Social theorists such as Mead, Cooley, Horney, and Sullivan (cited in Therrien, 1969) emphasize the influence of social interactions on the development of perceptions about oneself. Self-concept is unique to the individual, but has its origins in social experience. "To be a self requires other selves" (Mead, 1948, p. 223). A person acquires a concept of self through repeated social interactions. These interactions, as interpreted by the individual, influence a person's beliefs about himself. Behavior in a given situation is determined by these beliefs.

Sullivan, like Mead, places importance on "significant others" in social relationships. Not all social experiences have equal relevance in their impact on self-concept. The child's perceptions of an interaction will depend upon how important or significant those involved are to him personally and consequently his behavior will be influenced by this perception. The more significant the "other," the greater will be the influence.

A person must infer attitudes of others towards himself from their behavior. These inferences, which may or may not be accurate, affect his own perceptions of himself thus influencing what he perceives and how he behaves.

His ideal self is what he would like to be and his real self is what he perceives he actually is. When these two selves are compatible with each other, the individual achieves consistency. Anxiety is produced when there is a discrepancy between them. If a person operates on faulty assumptions of how he is perceived by significant others, these assumptions will tend to be reinforced

(Samuels, 1977). "The child, indeed, becomes that which he thinks he is" (Yamamoto, 1972, p. 83). A child that sees himself as a poor speller will likely perceive situations that reinforce that concept and will also behave in a manner consistent with that perception. "Perception is selective according to whether the experience is consistent with the current concept of self or not" (LaBenne & Greene, 1969, p. 19).

Self as Resistant to Change

According to Lecky, the individual rejects experiences which conflict with his self-evaluation and in this way strives to maintain himself, (Jersild, 1952). Snygg and Combs (1959) concur stating that "man seeks both to maintain and enhance his perceived self" (p. 45). In order to maintain the integrity of his self-concept, an individual must constantly evaluate his relationships with others. Experiences that are not consistent with one's self perceptions are considered as threats (Samuels, 1977). Even though a person's self-concept is somewhat resistant to change, re-evaluation is occurring constantly in order to maintain an equilibrium (Jersild, 1952). In this way the self can be considered to have a dynamic quality. For example, if a person experiences something that is incompatible with his own perceptions, he then has three choices: to ignore it (selective perception); to reject it outright; or to assimilate it and thus reorganize his self-perceptions. Whether to reject the experience or assimilate it may depend in part upon the number of times this experience or similar experiences happen to the individual. In other words, if a child is used to being successful, then experiences of success will

be easy to accept. However, a poor student may have a difficult time accepting success and may distort or reject it. He may think to himself 'This can't be my mark, there must be some mistake'. The child's self-concept influences the kind and quality of experience perceived.

William James expressed the importance of inner consistency in much the same way as Lecky (Samuels, 1977). Conflicts can arise if there is a discrepancy between inner feelings and outward appearances. The greater the conflicts, the greater the discrepancy, in which case, the individual tries to adapt or reorganize his self-perceptions. Reorganization may occur as the individual becomes aware of that which he was previously unaware (Therrien, 1969). This striving for consistency is in agreement with the theories of Allport, Lewin, and Sullivan (LaBenne and Greene, 1969).

The younger the age of the individual, the easier it is to change the self-concept. A young child has not had an extensive amount of experiences upon which to base his self-perceptions. Thus, he does not yet have a firmly fixed idea of himself in relation to many life experiences. At the age of starting school, the child's self-concept is still malleable. " . . . the child's self-concept is not unalterably fixed, but is modified by every life experience . . . at least through the maturing years" (LaBenne and Greene, 1969, p. 23). As personality becomes more established, the individual achieves a higher degree of stability. The self-reinforcing nature of the self-concept becomes increasingly rigid as it develops.

The paradox of self-concept development. What is becoming increasingly evident throughout the literature is the paradoxical nature of self-concept. An individual acquires a self-concept through interactions with his environment. He learns how to think about himself through his perception of how significant others think about him. However, his perception of himself determines his choice of significant others, his behavior, and most importantly, how he perceives a situation. All perception is selective depending upon past experiences, which in turn, defines future perceptions. Consequently, self-concept is a difficult construct to change, particularly as a person gains more experiences and becomes more fixed in his perceptions.

Self as Many Selves

Most theorists agree that the self-concept is comprised of many different selves. James separates self into a material self, which includes all material possessions; the social self, comprised of how one feels others perceive him; and the spiritual self, which is one's inner being (LaBenne & Greene, 1969). Mead (1948) divides self into an "I" and "ME." Because Mead's self-concept theory is based in social psychology, he also looks at self-concept in the light of the many social situations experienced. He considers self-concept to be made up of a variety of concepts, each stemming from different social situations.

Other writers have discussed how an individual perceives himself in terms of his body self, his social self, his cognitive self (Samuels, 1977, Ch. 1). Self-feelings with regard to the different selves are dependent upon interpersonal relations with significant

others. Significant others who influence the social self might be different than significant others who affect the cognitive self. Gradually a person develops self-feelings about all his different selves.

Self-Esteem as Part of Self-Concept

During the growing-up years, children learn about themselves through their experiences. A large percentage of these experiences have a "quality" or "value" placed on them. A mother, through repeated contact with her child, gives him an impression of his worth as a person. Through these repeated experiences, the child gains an idea of whether he is a "good me" or a "bad me." If his experiences have been essentially positive, then he will have a positive self-concept. One failure or defeat is unlikely to adversely affect this self-concept because of the build-up of successful encounters (LaBenne and Greene, 1969).

The term self-esteem is used to refer to the values one holds or the judgements one makes about his self-perceptions. Coopersmith (1967) defines self-esteem as:

> The evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. (p. 4)

High self-esteem develops from the quality of interactions with significant others and from the frequency of successful experiences. Low self-esteem indicates a lack of self-respect and

personal feelings of insignificance and unworthiness.

Self Concept as a Learned Construct

When a child is born, he cannot differentiate between himself and his surroundings. After repeated interactions with significant others, particularly the mother, the child gradually learns what is "me" and "not me." A person needs a social world in order to develop a self-concept (Mead, 1948). The first step in understanding one's self is developing self-awareness.

Development of self-awareness. As the child learns to smile, kick, reach and grasp, he begins to realize that he has control over certain parts of himself. He is thereby developing a body image (Dinkmeyer, 1965). While this body image is developing, the child is also learning whether he is loved or not.

> The self is formed from the experience woven in everyday life, concealed in everyday occurrences, hidden in the deep communications of unspoken feelings and affection. The child becomes the way he is treated (Purkey, 1970, p. 34).

Within very little time, the child recognizes his inner wants and needs. At this point in his development, he comes to realize that not all of his wants are consistent with that of other people. One little boy might want to eat ice cream, while his mother might want him to eat carrots. At this stage a very important feature of self-concept development occurs. Once the child experiences purposes and intentions that are different from his own, feelings of his own personality begin to develop (Dinkmeyer, 1965). He thinks of himself as a unique individual rather than just an extension of

his parents. Feelings and perceptions held by the child begin to affect his behavior.

Self-identity and memory. Memory is an important factor in developing a self-identity. By remembering repeated actions and the sensations they caused, babies learn that they have control over their environment and that they exist as a separate "self." By the time a child has reached the age of two and one-half, he is using his own name thus providing himself with a label that is uniquely his (Purkey, 1970).

Concept of Self as it Affects Perceptions of Others

Relationships with others are affected by a person's own self-perceptions (Therrien, 1969). Accepting others is directly related to one's self-acceptance. Sullivan points out: "If there is a valid and real attitude toward the self, that attitude will be manifest as valid and real toward others. It is not as ye judge that ye shall be judged, but as you judge yourself so shall you judge others" (Snygg and Combs, 1959, p. 151). Snygg and Combs (1959) stress the need of the organism's "search for adequacy" (p. 129) They go on to say "generally speaking, the greater the feeling of adequacy, the greater the capacity for acceptance of self and of others" (p. 137).

Self-Concept Development in the School Setting

The concept of many "selves" keeps running throughout the literature. As has been discussed previously, different theorists have divided the self-concept into various selves. These selves or categories of self-concept overlap and form a composite or global view of self. For the purposes of this study, the self as defined

by the social situation will be the focus.

A person has many different selves or roles depending on the social situation. For example, in the social situation of the home, a person's role may be cook. This same person's role may be musician in the evening outside of the home. Some situations will be more important than others to the individual and therefore will affect self-esteem in different ways. A person can have distinct and different self-feelings depending upon the role played and the social situation. One may hold oneself in high regard as a musician but will not be as concerned about one's image as a cook.

The school is the social situation of importance to this study and with it the focus of self in the role of student. In this role, the child's development of self-concept has the possibility of being influenced by the teacher's behaviors.

Self in the Role of Student

A child comes to school with perceptions already formed about himself. He has some idea of his capabilities for coping with his environment, and of his value as a social being in relation to his family and peers. However, he probably does not have any perceptions of his role as a student, as a reader, or his role in any of a number of other activities in which he will be participating during his school life. By participating in these activities, he will learn what is expected of him in his new role as a student and how well he will fit that role.

First experiences seem to be most important in developing self-concept. Because the child has no previous experience of schooling, the first year will likely have greatest impact on

self-concept development for the following reasons:

1. "A child's initial experiences with a situation have the strongest influence on the concept he develops of himself in that situation.

2. The self-concept, once formed, characteristically reinforces itself, thus becoming relatively fixed and not easily changed" (Therrien, 1969, p. 103).

Self-concept and school achievement. "Empirical and experimental data clearly indicate a direct relationship between the child's self-concept and his manifest behavior, perceptions, and academic performance" (LaBenne and Greene, p. 24). Children with poor self-concepts generally do poorly in school. However, due to the dynamic quality of self-concept plus the young age of a beginning pupil, self-concepts can be changed. As Purkey comments, "The self will change if conditions are favorable" (p. 12).

A child that feels inferior or unacceptable sees life's experiences as a constant threat. His defense mechanisms come into play in order to protect his self-esteem and to reduce tension. Some of these mechanisms might include: rationalization, thinking up logical reasons rather than facing the real reason; identification, taking other people's qualities for his own; repression, denial of unpleasant actions (Dinkmeyer, 1965). The child who feels incompetent may try to cover-up by bragging or being aggressive. This in turn reinforces his negative self-concept and helps to maintain self-consistency. Before a change in behavior can occur, a reorganization of the child's self-concept has to preceed it.

Teachers as significant others. Parents are the child's first significant others, but once the child starts school, the teacher becomes important for two reasons: first, the very nature of the teacher's role means that he becomes a significant other. "Significant others are the people who most intimately administer the 'rewards and punishments' in a person's life" (LaBenne and Greene, 1969, p. 14). Secondly, the teacher and child are in close contact for a large part of each day.

In the role of significant other, the teacher's behavior can affect the child's self-esteem. The child's concept and feelings of himself as a pupil are affected by the way in which he perceives the teacher's perceptions and feelings about himself. Children that feel good about themselves and feel approval from the teacher are more open to experiences and are able to function more adequately. Academic performance is greatly improved when a student feels that the teacher's impressions are favorable (Purkey, 1970).

Self-fulfilling prophecy. People act in a manner consistent with their perceptions of how others treat them and expect them to act. Samuels (1977) relates a number of studies which describe relationships between students' achievements and their teachers' perceptions of them. One study by Brophy and Good, (1974) found that teachers were more likely to encourage those students whom they perceived as high-achieving and gave them more clues when asking them a question. Low-expected-achievement children were quite often overlooked, but if asked a question were not encouraged when an answer was not immediate.

Other areas in which self-fulfilling prophecy creates

inequality, according to studies cited in Samuels, (1977) were in relation to the socio-economic status and the sex and race of students. In the classrooms where teachers expected boys to be less successful in reading than girls, this was usually proven to be true. Lower self-esteem occurred with low-income students and students of a different race when they came in contact with new "significant others." Both teachers and peers had expectations of these students and indeed the students were inclined to evaluate themselves in comparison with their perception of the expectations of this middle-class group.

Each child's behavior stems from that child's perceptual field. Consequently, his culture, background, experiences and present situation determine his behavior. Snygg and Combs expressed it this way:

> What a person thinks and how he behaves are largely determined by the concepts he holds about himself and his abilities . . . The self . . . is the point of reference for everything he does and the self can only be understood through somebody's perceptions. (p. 122-123)

Teachers have to understand a child's behavior from the point of view of the child. In this way understanding can take the place of generalization.

Summary

The dominant characteristics of self-concept have been outlined. Thus, self-concept is the system of beliefs and values that each individual learns to attribute to his objectified self.

Self-concept influences the behavior of the individual and determines the way he perceives others. As self-perception and self-esteem develop, and the individual strives to maintain a consistency between his real self and ideal self. Though a person's self-concept is segmented and changing, each individual strives to achieve a unified, consistent image of himself in his relationship to his environment.

The teacher, as a significant other, determines to a large extent the perceptions a child holds of himself as a student. His perceptions, in turn, determine his behavior in the role of student.

First experiences are particularly crucial in developing self-concept. New experiences in school supplement old concepts and can set the general direction for future schooling. Teachers, when conveying their expectations to the students, can influence that direction. The student's perception of himself, learned from his perceptions of how others see him, is a major determinant of his behavior.

Hence, self-concept influences much that each human sees and does. "It is becoming clear that many of the difficulties which people experience in most areas of life are closely connected with the ways they see themselves and the world in which they live" (Purkey, 1970, p. 2).

CHAPTER III

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter outlines not only the procedures for the study but also the reasons for using these particular procedures. Information on the sample, the pilot study, and the setting are included. Finally, methods used for data analysis are outlined.

Methodology

The need for studying behavior in the setting in which it is normally taking place has been well documented (Beegle and Brandt, 1973; Williamson, Karp and Dalphin, 1977). The underlying assumption is that behavior is setting-specific. The social situation and the meaning structures of the individual determine much of the behavior. Wilson (1977) talks about schools exerting a powerful force on the participant's behavior and suggests that if research is to say anything meaningful about everyday classroom activities, then research is best conducted within school settings. For the above reasons, this study took place in the classrooms.

Naturalistic reasearch (defined as "the study of phenomena in naturally occurring contexts" p. 9) is conducted according to the type of information being sought (Brandt, 1972). Information needed for this study was a full description of teacher behaviors that might influence the child's self-concept development. Hence, due to the descriptive nature of the study, the narrative form of observational procedures was used for collecting the data, the focus being naturally occurring teacher behaviors.

The Participants

The participants in this study were two kindergarten and two grade one teachers in different elementary schools in a school district near the City of Edmonton. The principal of each school was contacted and he in turn informed the grade one and kindergarten teachers of the study. Out of six volunteers, four were chosen to participate. Only one classroom from each level was selected from any one school in order to minimize comparative conversations among teachers. Having two teachers at the same level with ample opportunity to discuss the observations might bias the data. Also, at the kindergarten level, where there is no prescribed curriculum, teachers might feel compelled to change their behaviors to make them more comparable.

Kindergarten and grade one teachers were chosen for two reasons: (a) Research indicates that beginning experiences are most significant in developing self-concepts. (Since kindergarten is not compulsory in Alberta, children in both grade one and kindergarten could be new to school life.) (b) The programs differ at each of these levels and therefore teachers might display some different behaviors. The kindergarten program is less structured, that is, the structure is much less overt than grade one. Very little large group instruction is seen in kindergarten, rather the teacher plays the role of facilitator. Two teachers at each level were selected.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted one week prior to final data collection. A grade one classroom was selected from one of the

volunteers. The pilot study involved a time period of one afternoon and was conducted for the following reasons:

1. To find out what methods were necessary in order to obtain a complete picture of verbal and non-verbal behaviors, (for example, tape recording, hand written narratives, mapping, etc.).

2. To determine the length of time needed for a unit of observation in order to record a meaningful sample.

3. To provide the opportunity for practicing concise, objective note-taking.

4. To test the recording equipment and the effect on the teacher using it.

Some revisions were made before final data collection. Mapping was not used because the teachers' location in the classroom was not considered important. The teachers' proximity to the children could be recognized from the tape recording or field notes whenever needed. Time sampling was not appropriate for the purposes of this study since the full afternoon was recorded rather than specific periods. All verbal behaviors were tape recorded and a description of all non-verbal behaviors was easily hand written. Notes of a subjective nature were made in a diary every day after the observation period.

Procedures for Collecting a Data Base

An inductive rather than deductive approach seemed most appropriate for the purposes of this study since this approach "begins with observations of the empirical world . . . Theoretical statements are built up out of the data that the researcher has collected" (Williamson, et al, 1977, p. 16). Other than the

theoretical framework of self-concept development, the researcher had, at the outset, no preset categories or variables to direct the collection of data. Thus observations were not limited to predefined categories. The categories were allowed to emerge from the data. Instead of testing hypotheses, this type of study tends to generate them (Beegle and Brandt, 1973). Data analysis was integrated with data collection to structure further observations. That is, over time the observations became increasingly focussed.

Of the three general types of observational data, (outlined in Brandt, 1972) narrative procedures seemed most suitable because of the study's descriptive nature. Brandt states that "with narrative data, the recorder merely tries to describe. Interpretation comes later" (p. 81). He goes on to say that the most distinctive feature of narrative data is the relative lack of interpretative content. Objective descriptions of verbal behaviors were considered necessary to establish a valid data base. Conclusions can only be as valid as the data base upon which they are drawn.

Data collection began on April 8, 1981 and continued until June 4, 1981 with approximately two consecutive weeks of afternoons spent in each of the four classrooms.

Once the teachers were selected, preliminary visits were made to each participant in order to secure appropriate informed consent and to assure the participants of confidentiality. The first afternoon of observation in each classroom was spent familiarizing the children and teacher with the presence of an observer in the classroom. Verbal behaviors were recorded using a remote control lapel microphone worn by the teacher during most of the observation

period. The microphone was not worn until the teacher felt relaxed and indicated a readiness. In some cases, such as outdoor activities and gym classes, the verbal behaviors of the teacher were not recorded on tape.

Simultaneous written observations were made of the teacher's non-verbal behaviors. Included in these notes were notations connecting verbal behaviors to non-verbal behaviors and explanations of the "influencing environment" (Brandt, 1972, p. 90). These field notes were important for interpreting the teacher behaviors during analysis. For example, a teacher might say "You shouldn't be frightened, they were just trying to tease you" and without more information on the circumstances surrounding the behavior, attempting to interpret the behavior would be difficult.

Descriptions of wall charts, pictures and various other material displayed around the classrooms were recorded in the field notes since these seemed to be relevant to self-concept development as well.

> The classroom presents to the pupil a body of information regarding expectations for learning and behavior. These are communicated to him not only through the physical arrangement of space but also through the nature and types of displays on bulletin boards in the room (Gordon, 1966, p. 90).

A daily diary was kept to record subjective reactions, impressions and questions arising from the data collection. Informal conversations were held with the teacher whenever necessary. These usually occurred when an explanation of a behavior

was needed or when the teacher wanted to listen to the tape recording or read the field notes.

The Setting

A kindergarten and grade one classroom were selected from one school; a kindergarten in a second school; and a grade one classroom from a third school. The four teachers each held a Bachelor of Education degree and an Early Childhood diploma. Teaching experience ranged from one year to four years between the kindergarten teachers and from five years to six years between the grade one teachers.

The two kindergarten rooms, one in a portable and the other within the school, were large, well-equipped classrooms set up with activity centers. Both programs were play-based settings in which the children could make a variety of individual choices. The grade one classrooms were similar to each other with desks grouped in the center of the room and different activity areas set up around the periphery.

The children were introduced to the observer and given a brief explanation of the reasons for the visit. One teacher answered a child's question about the lapel mike by saying "I'm taping my voice. So I can see if I talk nicely to children or not." Usually the teacher explained that the lady was here to do some special work of her own. The children were cautioned that the observer was not a helper but would be very busy writing notes and should not be disturbed. This seemed to satisfy them as very few questions were asked about the observer over the period of observation.

The Teacher's Reaction to the Data Collection

All of the teachers participating in the study volunteered but gave different reasons for their involvement. One teacher said she was "doing this for you, not for me." Another felt "unspoken pressure from the school board." One considered it a learning experience. She felt that she was unaware of some of her mannerisms and wanted to learn more about her style of teaching.

There were also differences in the manner in which each reacted to the observer. Two teachers glanced at the observer repeatedly while the other two ignored the observer's presence except for occasional remarks when incidents happened in the classroom. It should be stated that the observer had previously taught on the same staff as two of the teachers and was acquainted with the other two.

After the first afternoon in each classroom, considerable time was spent with each teacher to assure her of the non-evaluative aspect of the study. Several occasions arose where the participant felt the need to justify certain types of behavior (usually disciplinary), even though the writer attempted to be non-commital. To further stress the non-judgemental nature of the observations, the researcher assured each teacher of her awareness of the problems and pleasures of everyday close interactions with young children. It was acknowledged that due to the spontaneous nature of interactions between teacher and children, it would be impossible

for the teacher to weigh every behavior before reacting.*

Consequently, it was felt that the teachers' behaviors were as natural as they could be with an observer present.

Data Analysis

The data consisted of transcripts of eighteen afternoons of taped and written recordings of four different teachers' verbal and non-verbal behaviors. Although the observer was in the classroom for twice as many afternoons, recorded observations were not always collected due to a number of problems. Mechanical failures with the equipment meant the loss of three recordings. Some afternoons were disrupted because of special events such as school plays, staff meetings, group pictures and special meetings which involved the teacher. Because data collection was close to the end of the school year, there were more interruptions than usual, particularly in the afternoons.

Recordings were transcribed as time permitted. All of the data were integrated and analyzed frequently. During a cursory analysis, behaviors were selected which the researcher intuitively felt might affect self-concept development. After each progressive examination of the data, using the theory of self-concept development as a

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*Brophy and Good (1974) reinforce the idea of the spontaneous aspect of teacher behaviors:

> Teachers are usually aware of their general instructional and behavioral objectives. However, it can be stated with some assurance that teachers in general are not aware of the specific ways in which they attempt to influence classroom behavior. They are especially unaware of the qualitative aspects of their interaction with students (p. 298).

framework, categories and patterns were identified until a picture of teachers' classroom behaviors began to emerge. Descriptors of clusters of teacher behaviors were generated throughout and subsequent to the data analysis. The selection of some descriptors was influenced by the categories described by Berliner and Tifunoff (1976).

Verbal and non-verbal behaviors were grouped together using the same categories whenever applicable. In most cases, non-verbal behavior was used in conjunction with verbal behavior and added meaning to that behavior. However, some descriptors contained only non-verbal behaviors, and some contained only verbal behaviors.

The frequency of occurrence of behaviors was not used as a factor in the study. That is, whether the behavior appeared only once or many times had no bearing on the inclusion of that behavior in the listing of behaviors. Since the purpose of the study was to define or document all naturally-occurring teacher behaviors which have the potential to influence a child's self-concept, it was unnecessary to examine frequency patterns.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to describe as many teacher behaviors as possible which might influence self-concept. The behavior descriptions collected in natural settings were analyzed in light of several theoretical propositions derived from self-concept theories.

Preliminary Data Analysis

Initial analysis of the transcripts involved the sorting of behavior descriptions into two categories: behavior relevant to self-concept development and behavior irrelevant to self-concept development. A guideline for such sorting was developed from intuitive notions combined with propositions derived from self-concept literature:

> Any behaviors that the teacher exhibits that give the child some information or feedback about himself in the school situation have the potential to influence his concept or feelings about himself.

Behaviors of the teacher that indicate her feelings toward or beliefs about a child may either directly or indirectly influence that child's feelings or beliefs about himself.

Feedback from the teacher can affect many aspects of the child's self-concept. Various senses of self-concept may be affected by any one behavior. Praise from the teacher about a child's jumping ability might, for example, indirectly affect his self-image and

self-perception but would directly affect his self-esteem. Self-esteem seems to be the pervasive factor since a person can have a value attached to any of the other notions of self-concept. Self-feelings can be positive or negative in relation to self-image, self-perception, self-acceptance and so on.

However, not all interactions that have potential to affect self-concept have an evaluative element. Graphs of height, hair color, and shoe size all affect the child's self-perception but may or may not have a value attached depending upon the child's feelings about those things. If a child is sensitive about being very short, then his self-esteem may be affected by a graph about his height. On the other hand, just learning that he is a certain height may only affect his physical self-image. A child perceives that he can do certain things such as sharpening a pencil, counting, bouncing a ball, etc. which need not affect the self-esteem unless he also learns to judge how competent or incompetent he is at these activities. Learning about behavior that is appropriate in the classroom setting also need not affect the self-esteem portion of self-concept.

Phase II Data Analysis and Findings

With the key statement in mind - does the teacher's behavior tell the student something about himself - the data were repeatedly analyzed. Initially, kindergarten and grade one classrooms were analyzed separately. All verbal behaviors that had potential to affect self-concept were selected from the transcripts. Non-verbal behaviors were analyzed in the same manner. Frequently, the non-verbal behaviors needed to be looked at in conjunction with

verbal behaviors in order to bring meaning to each of them. Together the behaviors were grouped on the basis of what information the child was likely to receive and/or by a definition of the behavior itself. If the teacher excluded or praised the child, then these behaviors were probably giving that information to the child. The child would know he was being excluded when the teacher said . . . "take your book . . . go and sit out there until you're ready to behave yourself." Excluding is also a description or definition of the behavior. The same applied when grouping behaviors under praising. The teacher is indicating to the child that he is good or his work is good. These behaviors were straightforward and easy to define.

Other teacher behaviors were more elusive because they did not give a clear message to the children and were difficult to describe. Under what descriptor would the behavior "I really like the way four people are ready to listen" be categorized? Even though the information the child receives is not clearly known, some information is being communicated that has potential to increase self-awareness. As a result, these behaviors were selected and categorized under a definition which best described the action. When trying to describe these actions behaviorally it became necessary to define them in fairly precise terms.

The behavioral categories in a preliminary list proved to be unsatisfactory. Some were too comprehensive and some were discrete but not clearly distinguishable from each other. By refining the various dimensions of the behaviors, a workable set of descriptors was developed.

Occasionally, when it was unclear as to which descriptor best described a behavior, the added information in the field notes gave the researcher the necessary clues. For example, when the teacher said "Can you cross your legs, please Keith," the tone of voice (firm) plus knowledge of the rule of sitting with legs crossed during discussion time aided in the categorizing.

A decision was made to group kindergarten and grade one behaviors of the same nature under the same descriptors to avoid duplication. Therefore most of the descriptors contain examples from both levels.

Finally, all kindergarten and grade one verbal and non-verbal teacher behaviors were combined into thirty-two descriptors. All of these descriptors, then, were descriptive of the teachers' observed classroom behaviors. Table I lists these descriptors. The order is alphabetical and does not have any relation to the significance or frequency of the behavior.

Non-verbal behaviors. Although many non-verbal behaviors needed to be looked at in connection with verbal behavior to establish meaning, some were clear by the behavior alone. For example, finger in front of mouth to indicate "Shhhh" was a controlling behavior even without the verbal "Shhhh." Smiling was a positive feedback behavior and frowning was a controlling behavior without needing speech to help clarify it. When the teacher was frowning in the context of saying to a child "Don't you ever do that again," the frown was an accompanying behavior grouped with the verbal behavior, in this case under the descriptor, "disciplining." Smiling was a non-verbal behavior used in many different situations with and

Table I

Teacher Behaviors Occurring in Kindergarten and Grade One

1. admonishing
*2. attending
*3. candid
*4. complimenting (control)
*5. convivial
*6. courteous
7. defensive
8. disciplining
9. empathizing
*10. excluding
11. expectant
12. helping
13. ignoring
14. inconsistent
15. individualizing
16. joking
*17. moralizing
*18. open questioning
*19. personalizing
*20. policing
21. positive
*22. praising
23. preferential
24. promoting decision-making
*25. promoting peer-teaching, peer-helping
26. promoting self-sufficiency
27. protecting
28. reducing stress
29. rejecting
*30. sarcastic
*31. shaming
*32. signaling

*Those descriptors marked with an asterisk were adapted from Berliner and Tikunoff (1976) Study of Beginning Teachers. The wording of descriptors and/or definitions may differ slightly.

without verbal behaviors and therefore was grouped under numerous descriptors. Other non-verbal behaviors were categorized under more than one descriptor as well, depending upon the context in which they were used.

There were three groupings that only included non-verbal behavior. These were "attending," "ignoring," and "signalling." Altogether, non-verbal behaviors were grouped under fifteen descriptors (see Table II).

The full set of descriptors with definitions and examples is outlined below. Non-verbal behaviors are inserted within the verbal examples when applicable and are also listed separately. The reader should understand that the descriptors were comprised of actual behaviors that took place in certain contexts. For example, the non-verbal behavior of sighing is grouped under the descriptor "shaming." The reason for this is that sighing was exhibited in conjunction with a verbal behavior classified as "shaming." In another context, sighing might tell the child something quite different.

Also included with each descriptor is a brief explanation of how these behaviors might influence self-concept development. Since the purpose of this study was to describe teacher behaviors, there is no way of knowing if these behaviors actually do affect the child's self-concept or to what extent. The research is suggesting that they have the potential to do so.

1. Admonishing - to warn or caution gently, to remind student of inappropriate behavior in classroom. Admonishing behaviors have the potential to teach the child whether his behavior is acceptable

Table II

Verbal and Non-Verbal Behaviors
in Each of the Descriptors

1.	admonishing	verbal	non-verbal
2.	attending	-	non-verbal
3.	complimenting	verbal	non-verbal
4.	candid	verbal	-
5.	convivial	verbal	non-verbal
6.	courteous	verbal	-
7.	defensive	verbal	non-verbal
8.	disciplining	verbal	non-verbal
9.	empathizing	verbal	non-verbal
10.	excluding	verbal	-
11.	encouraging	verbal	-
12.	helping	verbal	non-verbal
13.	ignoring	-	non-verbal
14.	inconsistent	verbal	-
15.	individualizing	verbal	-
16.	joking	verbal	non-verbal
17.	moralizing	verbal	-
18.	open questioning	verbal	-
19.	personalizing	verbal	-
20.	policing	verbal	non-verbal
21.	positive	verbal	non-verbal
22.	praising	verbal	non-verbal
23.	preferential	verbal	-
24.	promoting decision-making	verbal	-
25.	promoting peer teaching	verbal	-
26.	promoting self-sufficiency	verbal	-
27.	protecting	verbal	-
28.	reducing stress	verbal	non-verbal
29.	rejecting	verbal	non-verbal
30.	sarcastic	verbal	non-verbal
31.	shaming	verbal	non-verbal
32.	signalling	-	non-verbal

or unacceptable.

(verbal)

"Mary, walking please."

"David, are you paying attention?"

"Remember what I said about being independent?"

"We're waiting for you, Michael."

"You're going to find it difficult to hear my instructions if you are making this much noise."

"Ryan, is something wrong, dear?"

"Ryan, are you having a problem?"

(The last two examples of the teacher talking to Ryan seldom required an answer. The children seemed to know that it meant "stop what you're doing and go back to your desk and do your work.")

(non-verbal)

finger in front of lips (meaning Shhh)

waiting for quiet

shakes nead "no"

pushes gently on child's head in one particular direction

moving child by shoulders

screwing up face

2. Attending - (non-verbal) teacher actively listens to what a student is saying, reading, or reciting. Attending behaviors have the potential to convey to the child a feeling that he is worthy of the teacher's attention.

3. Candid - teacher verbally acknowledges to students feelings of anger or frustration, admits mistakes, expresses need for self-improvement. Candid behaviors have the potential to create a

climate where mistakes are acceptable.

"You guys sure make me feel lonesome."

"I don't know."

"I'm sorry, you're right."

"I don't know, that's what's confusing me."

4. Complimenting (control) - teacher's action reinforces student(s) whose behavior is in the right direction but with the purpose of having the rest of the class follow the example. Complimenting (control) behaviors have the potential to tell a child indirectly that his behavior is acceptable and to tell others indirectly that their behavior is not.

"I really like the way four people are ready to listen."

"I like the way Cara is not talking 'cause she knows that it's only Jeff's turn to talk."

"Oh, boys and girls, it's really nice the way you are working so quietly." (This remark was made to a small group of children.)

"Are we listening to Lisa's good idea, boys and girls?"

(non-verbal)

holds hands behind back and walks around room looking at children's work (children seem to know this means work hard without fooling around)

5. Convivial - teacher seeks contact with students, talks with them, shows affection toward them, creates friendly feelings between students. Convivial behaviors have the potential to create an atmosphere of warmth and feelings of acceptability on the part of the child. Children feel good about being part of the group.

"I'm glad you're feeling good about each other."

"Not when I'm around, no kidnappers. I wouldn't let them take you anyway, Scottie. I wouldn't let them! I'd just go up to them and say 'you can't take Scott!'"

(Teacher talking to class before going out in the woods for a lesson on ecology, smiling.)

"Like you and I, we're all human beings."

"No, I'm not your mommy . . . your mommy's coming back soon, eh?"

"It's my favorite job." (Child says to teacher, 'you like teaching, don't you?'.)

(non-verbal)

smiling

touching

cuddling

laughing

sitting close to child

6. Courteous - teacher requests rather than commands, uses please and thank you, apologizes. Courteous behaviors have the potential to convey to the child feelings of worthiness when being treated politely.

"Oh, I'm sorry."

"Pardon?"

"You're welcome."

"Thank you."

7. Defensive - teacher defends own behavior when questioned by students by implying blame on pupil's part. Defensive behaviors have the potential to indirectly place blame on the child; to tell him that his behavior is unacceptable.

"Well, you didn't tell me you had anything, did you? Why didn't you mention it when I was calling names?" (Child was complaining because he didn't have show and tell, teacher's tone of voice was raised and defensive.)

"I'm not a mechanic." (Child asked a question about a toy.)

"I'm not a mind reader, am I?" (teacher frowning)

(non-verbal)

frowning

8. Disciplining - teacher sets up rules and controls for appropriate classroom behavior, reinforces these rules, warns about these rules. Disciplining behaviors have the potential to tell a child or group of children that their behavior is unacceptable.

"Can you cross your legs, please, Keith." (rule in classroom discussions is to sit with legs crossed) (tone of voice firm)

"Now are you going to work without fooling around or am I going to have to let someone else work here?"

"Boys and girls could we freeze for a moment please." (Children doing something wrong.)

"Freeze!" (Command used to stop all behavior and listen to the teacher) (teacher frowning)

"Betty, I'll talk to you when you get rid of your gum."

"Put your hands on your heads, boys and girls."

"You know what . . . you're bugging me. You're not doing your work. It bothers me, did you know that? Can you get it finished?"

"No, remember, hand up so that you can have your turn."

"Don't you ever do that again please. When it's clean up time you clean up whether it's recess time or not.

(non-verbal)

looking stern

frowning

turning lights out

waiting for quiet

pulling child up by arm

walking around

holding hands up

9. Empathizing - teacher relates to child's feelings; accepts feelings. Emphathizing behaviors have the potential to create a climate of empathy; children can feel secure in displaying their feelings.

"Maybe you've got a rotten spring cold."

"It's hard to draw a line there."

"Jane, I know it makes you sad but it would really be . . ."

"I know, it's tough." (Said when someone complained when they couldn't go out for recess because of rain.)

"You know, I guess everybody has different ways of looking at things, don't they?" (smiling)

"You shouldn't be frightened, they were just trying to tease you." (Said in a soft voice when consoling a crying child .)

"It seems kind of sad because they are such beautiful creatures."

(non-verbal)

patting arm

cuddling

hugging

feeling forehead of child

10. Excluding - teacher banishes student from class activity. Excluding behaviors have the potential to tell a child that his behavior is unacceptable.

"Brian, maybe your giggles won't be quite so bad if you sit back on the bench."

"This is just enough silliness. Take your book . . . go and sit out there until you're ready to behave yourself."

"Alright those children who are ready for show and tell may come to the listening corner, except Billy, Susie, and Jane. They know what to do."

11. Encouraging - teacher encourages child by defining the level of difficulty of the task as being within the child's capabilities. Encouraging behaviors have the potential to indicate to a child that it is acceptable and understandable to have difficulty.

"Oh, it's not hard, you'll see."

"It's so easy. You know, Brian."

"They don't usually expect grade ones to know 'cause it's really hard."

"It gets tricky, I know."

12. Helping - teacher gives offers of help. Helping behaviors have the potential to create a climate of togetherness; children can ask for help without feeling inadequate.

"Do you want me to help you?"

"You do that part and I'll do the sides."

"I'll help you measure that."

(non-verbal)

guiding child's hand

13. Ignoring - teacher appears to deliberately "not hear" or "not see" child or children as a control device. Ignoring behaviors have the potential to convey to the child feelings of unworthiness if the teacher does not acknowledge his presence.

(As teacher re-wound film, several children were asking questions. Teacher was ignoring them, but finally said "I hear lots of people asking questions but I don't see any hands up."

14. Inconsistent - teacher gives a direction and does not follow through, sets up rules and ignores them, is inconsistent. Inconsistent behaviors have the potential to create an insecure climate of disorder; child cannot learn whether his behavior is acceptable or non-acceptable.

"Freeze." (Teacher keeps on talking and children keep on doing whatever they were doing.)

"I think there's already three people working there. You think you can share all those tools without anybody getting hurt? Roxanna, why don't you go see if you can help them too." (Four in woodworking center when rule is two people only.)

(Teacher holds up finger to indicate listening while announcements are made and then continues talking herself.)

(Teacher talking differently to children and adults, using third person when talking about herself to the children, but not consistently.)

(Letting children chatter in rug corner one day and not the next day.)

15. Individualizing - teacher shows interest in child as an

individual outside of school activities. Individualizing behaviors have the potential to convey to a child a feeling that he is worthy of the teacher's interest, particularly in matters apart from school.

"Do you go to ballet lessons?"

"Does your mom work some days?"

"What's your favorite kind of donut?" (smiling)

"I looked down and I thought 'Oh, those are pretty shoes'."

"Did your mom call it aphids? OK, well your mom knows a lot about plants, so we'll call them aphids."

"Have you heard how your mom is Riley? Is she ok?"

16. Joking - teacher makes jokes or teases in a friendly way. Joking behaviors have the potential to create a warm and friendly atmosphere which helps the child feel good about himself.

"This is my mountain climbing rope." (speaking about the remote control mike)

"Are you teasing me?" (spoken in a friendly tone) (eyes wide open to show surprise)

"This is my magic tape." (smirking)

"Are you routing for the Islanders? Oh boy, what a traitor. That's terrible." (smiling and laughing when saying this) (wrinkling up nose)

(non-verbal)

smirking

wrinkling up nose

smiling

laughing

17. Moralizing - teacher emphasizes goodness versus badness,

verbally expresses ideal behavior model. Moralizing behaviors have the potential to inform the children whether their behavior is acceptable or unacceptable.

"Excuse me, we are going to have to wait because some people aren't being polite."

"I like the way Dan has his hand up. He remembers his manners."

"Some of us are really remembering our manners this afternoon."

"I always notice that the people that don't talk are the ones that get their work done first. And they do it the best."

18. Open questioning - teacher asks questions which call for interpretive responses indicating that the child's ideas are worthwhile, accepts student's work and ideas. Open questioning behaviors have the potential to make the child feel worthy and acceptable.

"What do you think it's going to turn into?"

"Why do you think you need more water?"

"Now what's that back part on the spaceship? The furnace! Oh. I hear it's pretty cold up in space. What's this part? I see, and what about these? Something to do with when the engine starts? That's what I was thinking of. Uh huh, so does it need anything else? No the exhaust heats it."

19. Personalizing - teacher calls student by name. Personalizing behaviors have the potential to give the child a personal identity; to make him feel an important member of the class.

"Good morning, Michael." (smiling)

"How are you today, Jane?"

"Can you carry this box, Sandi?"

20. Policing - undue emphasis on quietness, orderliness, good behavior, and teacher spends disproportionate time with monitoring student behavior and controlling for discipline. Policing behaviors have the potential to create a climate of disapproval; children may feel that most of their behavior is unacceptable.

(Teacher says child's name for control out of habit but does not do anything about it, just carries on talking.)

(Teacher says "Freeze" but then keeps talking and children don't pay attention.)

(Child asks teacher a question, teacher says "Shhhh" before answering question.)

(Teacher interrupted a child many times when she was listening to child's answer to discipline another child. Watched other children constantly rather than attend to child who was talking to her.)

(non-verbal)

Teacher talks with finger in front of lips indicating "Shhhh."

21. Positive - teacher expresses positive, pleasant, optimistic attitudes and feelings towards group. Positive behaviors have the potential to create a climate of approval and warmth; children may feel good about themselves.

"Oh, I like the waves." (lots of children making waves)

"I think it turned out nicely." (a group project - bulletin board)

"I see lots of people doing their best. Really good pictures."

"That was very good, boys and girls."

(non-verbal)

nodding yes

whispering to child

putting arms around child

bending over child

22. Praising - teacher verbally rewards student(s). Praising behaviors have the potential to help the child feel good about himself or about his work.

"Looks really nice, Susie. That's an excellent cat." (smiling)

"Oh, Sandra, that was excellent!" (smiling)

"Yes, Cathy, that's very good."

"That was good remembering."

"Keith, that's so neat the way you made those go into a curl! What a good idea!"

(non-verbal)

smiling

23. Preferential - teacher treats children differently in classroom, has "special" children or gives special jobs to certain children. Preferential behaviors have the potential to convey to the child feelings of his worthiness or unworthiness, depending upon the child.

"Charlene, would you go with them and show them the way and then come right back"?

"Well, Charlene's not busy so she might as well do it."

"Charlene will show you the way to the art room."

"Charlene, do you want to water the plants?" (No other children were given special jobs.)

Child spreads books out on floor . . . teacher praises him. Next day another child spreads same books out on floor during the same period . . . teacher disciplines her.

24. Promoting decision-making - teacher encourages student(s) to make choices, decisions. Promoting decision-making behaviors have the potential to enable the child to order his day thereby giving him feelings of being capable.

"David, do you want to work at carpentry?"

"Where are you going to work?"

"Well, what should we do?"

"Well, you tell me what to do."

"Put your hand up if you would like to go outside for gym today. Ok, more people want to go out than want to stay in."

25. Promoting peer-teaching, peer-helping - teacher encourages students to help each other. Promoting peer-teaching behaviors have the potential to create a climate of cooperation thereby making the children feel good about themselves.

"Ellen, you take Tracy with you so she can play with you and Christine."

"You boys help Dan."

"Why don't you guys work together?"

"Tammy, maybe you could help Betty."

"Michael, would you go with Ellen and Jane, too. They have a lot of bottles and you can help them collect ladybugs."

26. Promoting self-sufficiency - teacher encourages students to take responsibility. Promoting self-sufficiency behaviors have the potential to help children accept responsibility for their actions; making them feel that they are acceptable.

"It's up to you."

"Sure, as long as you take it back when you're done."

"You don't have to ask." (Child asked to go to the bathroom.)

27. Protecting - teacher defends student from verbal or physical assault by another child. Protecting behaviors have the potential to create a climate of fairness, enabling the child to see teacher as an ally; gives the child a feeling of acceptability.

"She doesn't need to copy you! She's got a really good brain. No, she doesn't need to copy anybody. She's on a different page."

28. Reducing stress - teacher accepts mistakes, encourages responses, waits for a response or gives child more time to respond. Reducing stress behaviors have the potential to create a climate of acceptability; child can guess at answers; does not feel threatened.

"Betty, what do you think? I'll come back to you in a minute, Betty."

"What are some things you see in that picture? Susie? Good, anything that Susie didn't mention?"

"You were watching your lines and you were thinking 'there must be four letters in that word' . . . that was good thinking, but there's a mistake."

(non-verbal)

smiling

laughing

cuddling

29. Rejecting - teacher rejects child's work or effort or feelings. Rejecting behaviors have the potential to create a climate of insecurity; child may feel unworthy.

"You didn't even spread it out to the edges! That won't do!"

(teacher frowning, shaking head)

"Really, you want to hear it? I don't think so." (frowning)

Asking another child to answer question before first child is finished talking.

"There is no reason it should be taking you this long."

"If you had not been fooling around quite as much, you would have been finished and we wouldn't be having all these problems with this page." (teacher frowning, angry tone of voice)

"Somehow I don't think so because if you were it would work out."

(teacher was telling the child to repeat a pattern in his head and the child said that he was doing it)

(non-verbal)

frowning

shaking head no

guiding child out by hand on head

30. Sarcastic - teacher responds in a demeaning manner. Sarcastic behaviors have the potential to give children a feeling of unworthiness.

"Crayons don't have legs, little boys that need crayons have to go get them themselves." (frowning)

"Printing goes a lot faster if you just make one stroke each time and you don't draw on them." (Spoken to a little boy that had been sitting at the table trying to print something for approximately one hour, teacher was frowning. This was said in a series of reprimands trying to get the child to work faster.)

"The message I'm getting from you is that you don't want to hear Sandi's TV show. Too bad." (The children were cleaning up in order

to come to the listening corner to listen to another child's story and watch the home-made TV show. They were excited about it and making noise when the teacher made this remark.)

"No, all my erasers have walked away." (frowning)

(non-verbal)

frowning

31. Shaming - teacher instills guilt in students for their behavior in order to establish control. Shaming behaviors have the potential to give children a feeling of unworthiness.

"If you don't want to cooperate, you don't have to make one of these, dear." (Children were making a mother's day present and were anxious to make them so that they could take them home to their mothers.)

"You're welcome, David." (Teacher said this to child when the child had forgotten to say "thank you.")

"Just think how disappointed your mom will be not to get this nice gift."

(Child is sent out of the room for misbehaving and a little later teacher comes out to talk to him privately.)

(Child's answers are in parentheses.)

Jeff . . . what's been our problem lately? (teacher sighs) Jeff, can you put your pencil down for a minute (spoken quietly and firmly) now is this the way we're used to having you behave in our classroom? It's not, is it? How come you've changed so much? Is something bothering you about our classroom? Are you feeling tired? (Yes) Are you? Do you get lots of sleep at night or do you find it hard to get to sleep sometimes? (Yes) Is it . . . well,

ok, but does it make you feel less tired by acting silly in the classroom? Or does it just make it worse for you? (It makes me feel less tired.) Really? . . . by acting silly? But you know what you do to the rest of the children . . . and to me? You make us feel awfully tired because we have to keep saying Jeff, Jeff, Jeff, and your work doesn't get done as nicely as you used to do it. (Pause) Grade one is almost over, you know that. You don't have very much time. I know you want to go to grade two but we'll have to finish all of our grade one work first, ok? It's making me feel pretty sad to have to keep saying Jeff, Jeff, Jeff, Jeff. I'm used to saying "that's really good, Jeff". I'm not used to talking like this to you. (Sighs.) (I'm really good at soccer.) Well, yes, I know that. You're good at lots of things. You're also good at mathematics and reading . . . when you want to. Are you going to try really hard? There's not much time left in grade one. Jeff! You think! (voice stern, teacher frowning) Are you going to try really hard? Because we're all feeling pretty tired and we're all anxious to be outside playing in the nice weather. (It's raining, there's no sun.) Well, not today, but other days there is, isn't there? Ok, so can you try really hard, please. Ok, look at what you did here. You finish your mathematics out here and then you come in quietly.

(non-verbal)

sighing, frowning

32. Signalling - (non-verbal) teacher uses body language, non-verbal signals to change students' behavior. Signalling behaviors have the potential to convey to the child a feeling that

his behavior is unacceptable.

snapping fingers

pointing

clapping hands

Physical characteristics. The physical characteristics of each classroom were recorded in the field notes. Charts, posters, pictures and graphs were classified as contributing to classroom climate hence giving the children some kind of information about themselves. Since the decoration and arrangement of the classroom were choices made by the teacher, these were considered to be behaviors that could affect self-concept. Some examples of these behaviors were: graphs of height, eye color, size of shoes, ability to remember phone number, address, and colors. Charts of words, vowels and days of the week, birthday charts, lost tooth charts and individual charts of number of books read were displayed as well. The arrangement of desks was recorded also as a teacher behavior. Some desks were grouped in pairs, some in groups of fours, and some desks were isolated from the others.

The physical characteristics of the classroom were not classified under descriptors because information collected regarding them was incomplete. The researcher merely recorded what was covering the walls but did not pursue this with the individual teachers. Since the behavior of putting charts on the walls means nothing in itself, the teacher's reasons for selecting these particular ones is necessary to know in order to group the behavior. And assessing the teacher's purpose or objective in selecting the material to be displayed is difficult without further

information. All charts, pictures, etc. remained the same in all four classrooms during the data collection period.

Phase III Data Analysis and Findings

With subsequent re-readings of the data and classifying the behaviors within the thirty-two descriptors, emerging patterns began to be clearly recognizable. A significant percentage of behaviors were exhibited with certain apparent intentions in mind. By analyzing the behavior in light of all information available (such as tone of voice, context of the behavior, and expression), a decision was made regarding the teacher's apparent intention for the behavior. Decisions regarding the intention's underlying behavior are difficult to make. However, a great deal of direct and subtle information was used in making such decisions. In addition, a second reader was used to assist with the judgements.

Some behaviors appeared to be for the purpose of controlling the class. Management and control behaviors appeared to occupy a large proportion of the teacher's time, particularly in grade one. Thus, an umbrella category emerged consisting of all the descriptors of behaviors exhibited by the teacher for the purpose of classroom management and control. Another large category emerged, that of behaviors expressed for the apparent purpose of giving the children encouragement or incentive to do their work or to better their work. This category was called "motivating" behaviors.

A third category became evident based on the teacher's intention. These were the behaviors that were expressed with the apparent intention of simply making the child or group feel good and

worthwhile and were called "positive feedback" behaviors.*

The last category includes a cluster of descriptors that were much harder to group under an umbrella category related to intention. In the researcher's opinion, there was no conscious intention on the part of the teacher when expressing these behaviors. The first three umbrella categories were based on the teacher's apparent intention for exhibiting the behavior: controlling, motivating, and positive feedback. However, in the fourth category, teacher behaviors such as "courteousness" are not likely to be given much forethought. The teacher, in all probability, is not thinking to herself, "I want to be courteous and therefore I'll say thank you." These behaviors do not seem to be as situation-specific as the other three categories. Nor do they seem to be as specific to the role of teacher, but rather are more dependent on the personality of the teacher. If she is courteous or candid to others in the classroom, she is probably courteous and candid to others outside the classroom as well. With this reasoning in mind, this last category was called "idiosyncratic" behaviors.

All thirty-two descriptors were clustered into these four umbrella categories (see Table III).

Phase IV Data Analysis and Findings

In order to group all thirty-two descriptors under the four

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*There is no category for negative feedback behaviors because the researcher felt that none of the teachers' behaviors were expressed for the apparent direct purpose of making a child or group of children feel rejected or unworthy.

large umbrella categories, the purpose or intention of the behavior needed to be clarified. That behaviors could have more than one intention soon became apparent. Therefore, a decision was made regarding the main or direct purpose of the behavior and grouping was based on that decision. The secondary purpose was labelled the indirect intention of the behavior. For example, when the teacher says, "I really like the way Billy is ready to listen," her direct intention for making this remark appears to be to tell the children that she wants everyone to listen, therefore it is classified as a controlling behavior. Indirectly, Billy may be receiving the information that his behavior is appropriate for the classroom setting. However, the classification is made on the basis of the direct intention.

Again, when looking at the intent of the teachers' behaviors, in some cases the same behaviors were found to have two entirely different purposes when used in different contexts. To illustrate: when the teacher used a child's name in the context of saying "good morning" or "how are you," she probably had no particular intention in mind. The descriptor for this behavior was personalizing and it came under the large category of "idiosyncratic" behaviors. However, when the teacher said the child's name by itself in a loud voice implying "stop that talking," then the definition of the behavior was disciplining and the intent was controlling. Tone of voice as well as context of the behavior were important clues for deciding the grouping of the behaviors both under the descriptors and later under the large umbrella categories.

Table III

Umbrella Categories

Controlling Behaviors -	admonishing
	disciplining
	excluding
	moralizing
	complimenting
	policing
	signalling
	ignoring
	inconsistent
Motivating Behaviors -	encouraging
	helping
	open questioning
	positive
	promoting decision-making
	promoting peer teaching
	promoting self-sufficiency
	reducing stress
	rejecting
	shaming
	excluding
	praising
	sarcastic
Positive Feedback Behaviors -	convivial
	empathizing
	praising
	protecting
Idiosyncratic Behaviors -	joking
	defensive
	courteous
	candid
	attending
	individualizing
	personalizing
	preferential

An example of the intention of a behavior being different when used in two different situations can be found in "praising." A teacher often praised the children with the intent of letting them know that she believed they had done well. Other times, praise was used as a motivating behavior. Teachers used praise to encourage children to work harder to produce a better product. Examples of praising, whatever the intent, are all listed under the descriptor "praising" because of the information the child was receiving and because praising defined the action. But, as explained previously, the intention of the behavior was the factor determining its inclusion in a cluster. Thus the descriptor "praising" was included under both umbrella categories of "positive feedback" and "motivating" behaviors. The intention, whether direct or indirect, was not considered when grouping the behaviors under the descriptors, but was the deciding factor when classifying the descriptors within the large umbrella categories.

Because many behaviors were not exhibited with a direct intention does not mean that they did not have a potential direct or indirect effect on the child. There needs to be a clear distinction made between direct and indirect intention on the part of the teacher, and the potential for direct and indirect effect of the behavior on the child. The intention of the teacher's behavior was analyzed in order to group the behaviors into categories. However, the behaviors themselves were selected because they had potential to affect the child, either directly or indirectly.

Many teacher behaviors, while not affecting the child directly, have the pontential to directly affect the classroom climate and

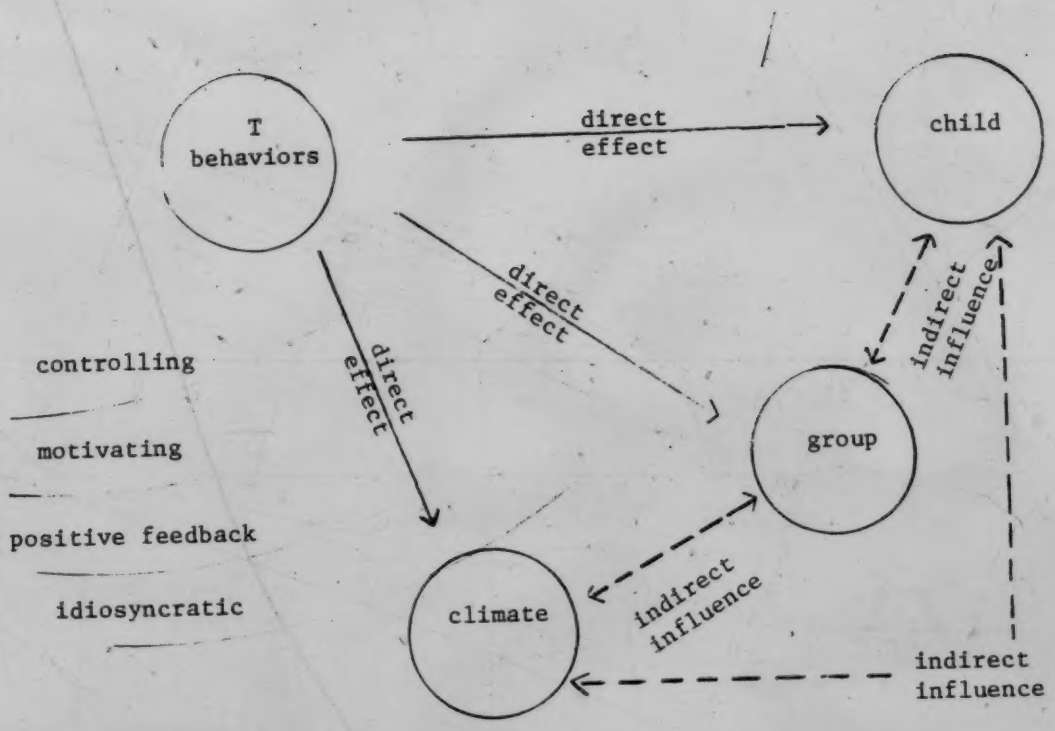
consequently the group. Some behaviors such as courteous and positive set the tone of the classroom. Children can feel comfortable and secure being a part of such a group. Indeed, they may feel good about themselves because they feel good about belonging to such a classroom.

My mother loves me.
I feel good.
I feel good because she loves me.

I am good because I feel good.
I feel good because I am good.
My mother loves me because I am good.

(Laing, 1970, p. 9)

The model of teacher's clasroom behaviors that have potential to affect the child's self-concept may help to clarify the analysis (see Figure 2). The teacher's behaviors, whether they are controlling, motivating, positive, or idiosyncratic, can have a direct effect on the child, a direct effect on the group, and a direct effect on the climate. All of these behaviors can also have an indirect effect or influence on the climate, group, or child. For example, when a teacher jokes with a child, such as "This is my magic tape," the behavior can be categorized as "idiosyncratic" and can have a direct effect on the classroom climate and an indirect effect on the group of children and the individual child. Conversely, a behavior that has a direct effect on the child, such as "You're a bad boy" can have an indirect effect on the climate by setting a negative tone if the teacher is usually negative. The children may feel that the classroom is a place where their "normal" behavior is not acceptable.



Controlling Behaviors - behaviors used to aid classroom management and control.

Motivating Behaviors - behaviors expressed for the purpose of giving the children encouragement or incentive to do their work or to better their work.

Positive Feedback - behaviors that tell the child or group that they are worthy and acceptable.

Idiosyncratic Behaviors - behaviors exhibited without conscious intention or thought, more reflective of the teacher's personality.

Figure 2. Model of Teacher's Classroom Behaviors That Have Potential to Affect Child's Self-Concept

Whether the child is affected directly or indirectly by the teacher's behavior does not change the fact that the potential for affecting the child's self-concept development is there. The purpose of this study was not to determine what the effect of the behavior may have been or to determine to what extent the behavior affected the child. Rather, the purpose was to generate a description of the kinds of teacher behaviors which occur in classroom settings and which might affect the child's self-concept.

Clearly, the literature on self-concept development indicates that when a person receives information about himself; whether a significant other tells him directly or whether he perceives attitudes and feelings about himself on the part of the significant other, the potential is there for his global self-concept to be affected in some way. The analogy of a car accident might be useful here. *A car accident has potential to affect one's health regardless of how often it happens, how severe it is or what injury was actually incurred.

Summary

In summary, all teacher behaviors, both verbal and non-verbal that had potential to affect self-concept development were selected from the data. On the basis of the kind of information passed to the child and/or a definition of the action, these behaviors were grouped under thirty-two descriptors. Further classification

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*Unfortunately, this analogy is negative rather than positive. However, the same principle applies to positive behavior.

resulted from considering the intention of the teacher behaviors. Using direct intention only as a basis for grouping, three umbrella categories emerged: controlling, motivating, and positive feedback behaviors. The fourth category, idiosyncratic behaviors, was used to cluster those behaviors that did not have a direct intention and were probably exhibited without any conscious purpose on the part of the teacher, but were more a part of the teacher's personality.

Thus, the teacher behaviors that had potential to affect the child's self-concept either directly or indirectly fit into thirty-two descriptors which in turn clustered under four umbrella categories.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe naturally-occurring teacher behaviors that have potential to affect self-concept development of children in the classroom.

Data were collected by naturalistic observation techniques over a period of two months (end of April to June) with approximately two weeks spent in each of two kindergarten and two grade one classrooms.

All behaviors, verbal and non-verbal, that might affect self-concept, that is, those that conveyed some information to the child about himself, were selected from the transcripts and grouped under thirty-two descriptors. They were grouped according to the definition of the behavior and/or the type of information the child was likely to receive. Clusters of behaviors began to form according to the intent of the behavior. Thus, the teacher's intention or purpose for exhibiting the behavior was analyzed and four large categories were formed: controlling, motivating, positive feedback, and idiosyncratic.

These four categories were incorporated into a model which illustrates how teacher behaviors have potential to influence the child, the group, or the climate. The model also illustrates how the direct influences of the teacher complemented the indirect influences that the climate, group, and child had on each other.

As with any study based on naturalistic observation, the findings must be viewed with some caution:

1. Observer and interpreter bias: the observer approached the study with a personal philosophy that might be classed as humanistic. This may have caused selective perception during the observation period. However, observer bias was minimized through use of the following methodologies: (a) the verbal behaviors were taped and transcribed; (b) there were no preset categories; and (c) a second reader was utilized.

2. Participants: some cautions are to be exercised in view of the selection of the participants used. First, the teachers were all volunteers; secondly, they all had reputations as good teachers (as reported by colleagues, parents); and thirdly, the study involved children five to seven years of age. The findings might have been quite different if the teachers had been randomly selected and if the children had been of a different age.

3. Timing: the study took place in the afternoons only. This meant that more relaxed, less academic, subjects were being taught, particularly in grade one. As well, the study took place during the last two months of school, when teacher behaviors could be different than at another time of the school year. More emphasis might be placed on setting up classroom behavior rules, establishing relationships, and generally settling the children into the school routine in the course of the early months of the school term. Finally, the amount of time sampled in each classroom was only two weeks at most.

4. Reporting: a problem is always present in communicating

meaning to the reader in that the writer and the reader have differing paradigms. Everyone brings his own meaning to the printed page.

Conclusions

Hypotheses. Based on the findings reported in Chapter Four, certain tentative conclusions can be put forward. The findings, and the hypotheses derived from them, appear to be common sensical, almost simplistic. In hindsight, and with the evidence distilled and organized, the results of this study emerge as ideas that many would class as obvious truisms. However, the complexity of the classroom is made up behaviors that are, in themselves, relatively unsophisticated. It is the diversity of human interaction that adds complexity to group behavior and necessitates descriptive research. The inductive approach used in this study allowed the researcher to unravel the complexities of the classroom; the isolating and analyzing of specific samples of behavior gave rise to findings from which it is now possible to derive hypotheses. Tautologically, these hypotheses are speculative in nature. Nonetheless, they provide fruitful ground for further research. Future investigators could test the hypotheses that:

1. All teacher behaviors that directly affect the group or classroom climate have potential to indirectly affect the child's self-concept development. This hypothesis is partially affirmed by many of the classroom climate studies which are reported in the literature (see LaBenne and Greene, 1959). Questions which further research might seek to answer include:

- Which teacher behaviors have the greatest effect on classroom climate?

- Does classroom climate become less important to self-concept development as children grow older?

2. The intent of the behavior is an important variable in determining the effect teacher behaviors may have on the child's self-concept development. In categorizing the behaviors observed during the course of this study, it became evident that behaviors could be grouped according to the perceived intent of the teacher. The intention of the behavior is to give feedback to the child; it is this feedback that affects the child's self-concept development. Possible questions for further research include:

- What does the child perceive by the teacher's behavior as compared with what the teacher intends?

- What does the teacher perceive her intentions to be when various behaviors are exhibited?

3. Teacher behavior, whether it has a direct or an indirect intention has the potential of affecting the child's self-concept. A direct intention is evident when the teacher behavior is directed at a particular child. When the teacher's behavior is intended to affect one prticular child, other children may be affected indirectly. Similarly, when a teacher seeks directly to influence a group of children or the whole class, the effect on any given child is indirect. Future researchers might find it profitable to ascertain:

- What are the relative effects on children's self-concept development of teacher behaviors directed at them personally and of

behaviors that reach them indirectly?

4. Some teacher behaviors appear to be expressed without conscious thought or intent. This hypothesis is consistent with conclusions found in other studies. Brophy and Good (1974) report that "lack of sufficient awareness" (p. viii) is a common feature of teacher behaviors. They further suggest that because of a lack of a sufficient data base of actual happenings in the classroom, more research is needed in this area.

- Of what behaviors are teachers aware? Of what behaviors are they unaware?

- How does the teacher's repeated use of a child's name, many times unconsciously, affect the self-concept of the child? What effects does this have on other children in their relationship with that child?

Speculations. The following statements tend to be more conjucture than the previous hypotheses. They are concerned with the frequency patterns of teacher behaviors. Since this was not a quantitative study, these statements can only be speculations which might suggest areas for further investigations.

1. An apparently large proportion of teacher behaviors in kindergarten and grade one have potential to affect the self-concept development of children in the classroom.

2. Very few classifications of teacher behaviors relate to promoting the affective domain.

3. Many classifications of teacher behaviors relate to motivation and controlling behaviors.

4. Apparently, self-sufficiency and decision-making on the part

of pupils are promoted more by the behaviors of kindergarten teachers than by the behaviors of grade one teachers.

The complexity of the classroom provides researchers with a rich environment in which to carry out additional naturalistic research studies. Although this type of research does not allow for precise controls, ultimately these rich descriptive studies may provide more meaningful information to teachers and researchers.

All aspects of the affective domain seem to be attracting more interest in the last decade. Educators are realizing the importance of a positive emotional environment. Enhancing the self-concept of children in the classroom can be both a cause and an effect of such an environment. Hopefully, naturalistic research in the affective area will become more prevalent. As Kash and Borich (1978) point out:

> The belief that pupil self-concept is not a legitimate concern of public education, or that affective dimensions warrant consideration only when they serve cognitive objectives may have influenced the amount of research, the kind of research, and the funds available for research in the affective area. Even more determinant, however, is the prevailing concept of learning (and educating) as a solely cognitive endeavor. Before we can begin to progress in researching the affective aspects of the learning experience, we must acknowledge that learning is

indeed composed of both affective and cognitive elements. We need an holistic concept of education, a concept that deals with the phenomenon of schooling as an experience of the <u>total</u> person. (p. 10)

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